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ABSTRACT

Three interrelated pedagogical elements--approach, design, and procedure--are basic in a discussion of language teaching. Approach defines those foundational assumptions, beliefs, and theories about the nature of language and language learning. Design specifies the relationships of theories to both the form and use of instructional materials. Procedure comprises classroom techniques and practices consequent upon particular approaches and designs. The discussion is in three parts: (1) some basic questions about structural-behavioral, functional, and interactional theories underlying particular pedagogical philosophies: (2) the relationship between theories in a particular approach and a design for language teaching, which would include a specification of the content, learner and teacher roles, and types and functions of instructional materials: and (3) procedural questions focused on the actual class techniques, practices, and activities operative in teaching and learning a language, and the relation between them and linguistic theory and learning models. It is concluded that an instructional system must be crafted to move from approach to design to procedure. In this way the study of methodology in applied linguistics assumes a significant role. (AMH)

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APPROACH, DESIGN AND PROCEDURE: THEIR ROLE IN METHODOLOGY

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If one were to attempt to compare the state of the art in language teaching today with the field as it was twenty years ago, some fairly major differences would emerge. In the fifty's and early 60's, language teaching represented a reasonably unified body of theory and practice. It appeared to be clearly linked in its theoretical foundations, to linguistics and psychology, particularly as these disciplines were represented in North America. Goals and ways of realizing these goals were clear. Terms such as grammar, habit, learning, teaching and error had straightforward and uncontroversial meanings. The respective roles of teacher, student and textbook in the learning process were well defined. By contrast the field of language teaching today represents anything but a uniformity of approach and practice. The key roles of linguistics and psychological learning theory in language teaching are no longer accepted unquestioningly. We are no longer as confident of our answers to basic questions about the nature of language and of language learning as we were in the heyday of structural linguistics and behaviourist psychology. Contemporary language teaching draws on a number of areas which were unknown or unconsulted by the linguists and psychologists of the 1950's and 60's. These include (following Candlin 1977) studies in textual cohesion, language functions, speech act theory, sociolinguistic variation, presuppositional semantics,

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interaction analysis, ethnomethodology and face-to-face analysis, ethnography of speaking, process analysis, and discourse analysis.

The practioner is thus confronted with a somewhat bewildering array of options at the levels of both theory and practice. There are differences in orientation on both sides of the Atlantic. Whereas in British TEFL, the major developments in the field in recent years have been associated with the emergence of ESP and with notional/functional/communicative approaches to language teaching, in North America, we have seen arise a wave of new (or re-treaded) methodological approaches appearing under such headings as The Silent Way, Counseling Learning, Suggestopaedia, Humanistic Language Learning, Total Physical Response, and so on. But does this mean that our profession today can no longer draw upon theoretical and empirical research in linguistics and psychology as a basis for the elaboration and rationalization of teaching practice? And, more important, have we moved away from a generally accepted body of theoretical and operational principles that form a basis for the organization of language teaching? Are we simply to follow the whims of individual taste, rejecting the need for a theoretical basis for our work, limiting our guidance to choice and change?

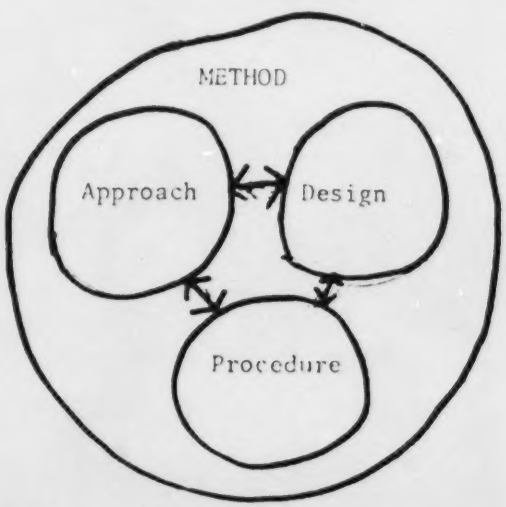
We hope to show here that current practices need not be seen as representing intellectual abandonment of what has been discovered about language and learning in the last twenty years, nor need they be seen as random and radical departures from the mainstream of applied linguistics

thought and method. The innovations of today, despite the revolutionary fervor with which they are sometimes described and defended, represent, we think, variations on familiar themes, rather than radical departures or totally new practices. Given this point of view, we hope to outline a model for the systematic comparison of language teaching methods, in the hope that such a model may make it easier to evaluate and understand recent developments in methodology in terms of some more familiar principles.

We wish to use as a point of departure, a three part distinction made some twenty years ago by Edward Anthony, when he proposed analysis of language teaching practices using the terms approach, method and technique (Anthony, 1963). We will modify this terminology for the present purpose and speak of Approach, Design, and Procedure. These three terms will be used to label the three inter-related elements of organization upon which language teaching practices are founded. The first element, Approach, defines those assumptions, beliefs, and theories about the nature of language and the nature of language learning which operate as axiomatic constructs or reference points, and provide a theoretical foundation for what language teachers ultimately do with learners in classrooms. The second element in the system, that of Design, specifies the relationships of theories of language and language learning to both the form and use of instructional materials in instructional settings. The third element, that of Procedure, comprises the classroom techniques and practices which are consequences of particular approaches and designs.

These three levels of organization form an inter-dependent system. A method is thus a particular set of realizations within such a system, and can be characterized by specifying the network of approach, design, and procedural elements on which it is based. When faced with a plethora of new language teaching proposals, we can, by focussing on the relationships between the levels of approach, design and procedure, perhaps better understand the ways in which one method differs from another (and the ways in which one method is similar to another) and hence more readily identify those methods which appear applicable and useful for particular purposes.

We will then 1. propose some basic and rather elementary questions that can be asked about the axioms, assumptions, and beliefs regarding language and language learning that underlie particular pedagogical philosophies; 2. explore how such philosophies are related to particular pedagogical designs, and 3. inquire as to how particular designs are realized in actual learning and teaching practices in the language classroom. Let us begin by defining the relevant elements of a teaching-learning system that form the basis for the description and comparison of teaching methods. The system is illustrated in the diagram below.



The contents of each element may be defined as follows:

Approach: A theory of the nature of language.

A theory of the nature of language learning.

Design: A Definition of linguistic content and specifications for selection and organization of content.

Specification of the role of learners, teachers, and materials in the instructional system.

Procedure: Description of techniques and practices in the instructional system.

Specification of how techniques and practices are used in the instructional systems.

There is perhaps an unstated assumption in all of the above that typical (or ideal) methodological development proceeds, rather neatly, from Approach to Design to Procedure. It is not clear whether such a developmental formula is ideally possible, and it certainly does not describe the typical case of methodological development. Methodologies can be developed from top to bottom or from bottom to top (in our diagram clock-wisely, counter-clock-wisely or both). That is, one can stumble on or invent a teaching procedure that appears to be successful on some measure and then later develop (counter-clockwise) a design and a theoretical approach which explains or justifies the given procedure. Most currently popular methodological proposals appear, in fact, to have been developed from procedure to theory (see e.g. Scovel's 1979 review of Suggestopaedia).

I. APPROACH

Let us first consider the level which we have referred to as that of approach. We are concerned here with the level of theory. We wish to claim that language teaching methodology needs a firm basis in language theory and language learning theory, without, however, claiming that all innovations in methodology derive from abstract theories or beliefs about the nature of linguistic systems and the nature of the language acquisition process. Sometimes practical experience may lead to the discovery of non-traditional procedures that are consistently found to be effective. In such a case, we can then look to theory for explanation or interpretation of what we discover. In either case we would expect to find the two levels in a supportive rather than a conflicting relationship.

Approach thus includes an explicit theory of language, and also assumptions about the nature and processes of language learning. Our theory of language at the level of approach relates directly to the level of design, since it provides the basis for determining the goals of a language syllabus, and approach relates to the level of procedure since it provides the linguistic and psychological rationale for selection of particular teaching techniques and activities. Because different views of the nature of language are possible, different specifications of the goals and content of a language syllabus are similarly possible. At least three different views of language underlie currently popular language teaching methods. The

first, and the most traditional of the three, is the structural view, the view that language is a structural system for the coding of meaning, and that the nature of this system is best described in the form of systems of structural rules or a transformational grammar. The target of language learning is the acquisition of such a system.

The second view of language on which methodology may be based is the functional view - the view that language is a system for the expression of notions and functions, i.e. meanings (e.g. Wilkins; 1975). Such a theory leads to a view of the essential nature of language in terms of a system of semantic potential rather than grammatical potential and leads to a very different specification of the content of a language teaching syllabus when translated into design.

A third view of language which informs some current methods of language teaching might be viewed as an interactional view of language. It sees language as a system whose primary purpose is for the expression of self and for the realization of interpersonal relations and the communication of interpersonal meanings. It defines language as a tool for the performance of social transactions between individuals. It sees language as a tool for the negotiation of subjective and objective reality, for the creation of social roles, and for the display of personal meaning and identity (e.g. Cicourel: 1974).

Structural, functional or interactional models of language (or variations of these) provide the axioms and theoretical framework of support underlying particular approaches to language teaching. But in themselves these are incomplete and need to be complemented by theories of the nature of language learning. The mutually reinforcing effects of structuralism in linguistics and behaviourism in psychology led to very specific manifestations at the level of design in methodology. Note however, that there is no inevitable link between a theory of the nature of language and a theory of the nature of language learning. That structuralism (a theory of language) was linked to behaviourism (a theory of learning) is a matter of choice not chance. Other marriages of language theory to learning theory were and are possible. The functional/notional model of language can be paired with a learning theory which will support a meaning-based approach to language teaching. Halliday's work on child language acquisition, for example, views language acquisition as shaped by semantic rather than structural factors. (Halliday: 1975). It thus reverses the relationship between form and function assumed by the structural/behavorial school. Interactional based views of language learning may similarily be paired with language theoretical models derived from studies in discourse analysis and interpersonal communication.

It is possible to specify a set of minimal requirements that a theory of language should meet if it is to form part of a

theoretical rationale for language teaching. Such a theory of language, we feel, should provide answers to questions such as the following:

1) What are considered to be the "primitives" of linguistic organization?
2) How are these primitives, defined, identified, and interrelated?
3) What hierarchical relationship of linguistic elements are assumed?
4) To what extent is linguistic organization considered to be species - specific, to what extent innate?
5) To what extent are individual languages seen as realizations of a universal system, to what extent as unique unto themselves?
6) How is linguistic competence defined?
7) What data are considered relevant in confirming or disconfirming theoretical postulates?
8) What form do descriptive statements take?

Further it should be possible to specify a set of minimum requirements for a theory of <u>language learning</u> if it is to form part of the theoretical rationale for a particular approach to language teaching. A language learning theory should provide answers to

questions such as the following:

1) How are learners presumed to build up their knowledge of the target language?

2) In what ways are different types of learners (e.g. child-adult) accounted for?

3) In what way does the theory account for different contexts of language learning (e.g. formal-informal)?

4) How does the theory account for both the acquisition of formal and functional competence?

5) What are considered to be the central processes of language learning (e.g. transfer - inference - mimicry - repetition etc.)

6) To what degree is learning thought to be under the control of external as opposed to internal factors? (e.g. How important are environment, stimulus, input?)

7) What sort of evidence would constitute proof or disproof of the theory?

In sum a method of language teaching should be interpretable as deriving from a particular approach, which provides an explicit account of the theoretical model of language and of language learning which informs it. Such theories should be stated explicitly and unambiguously and in a form which will permit verification or falsification. Some methodologists have a tendency to describe theories in a form such that no data could be viewed as evidence against them.

Thus, theories become dogmas, and doctrine substitutes for description. One common element in the writings of many who endorse the 'new' methodologies, is a generally uncritical acceptance of unstated assumptions behind such approaches and methods. It is our feeling that if we consider applied linguistics to be concerned with what the editors of Applied Linguistics describe as "promoting a principled approach to language education and other language-related concerns by encouraging enquiry into the relationship between theoretical and practical studies" (Allen et al: 1980) then clearly stated theories of language and language learning must underlie methodology. These theories will derive from findings in theoretical linguistics, psycholinguistics, language acquiation, pragmatics, and so on. Attempts to promote methodological changes which fail to relfect findings and developments in these areas are prone to the charge of arrogance, ignorance, or both.

(II) Design

We now consider the level within methodology which is concerned with how the views of language and learning identified in a particular approach - are linked to a design for language teaching. Such a design includes 1) a specification of the content of instruction, 2) a specification of learner roles in the system, 3) a specification of teacher roles in the system 4) a specification of instructional materials types

and functions.* Different approaches to language teaching manifest themselves in different design elements in language teaching systems. Let us consider the elements within the level of design, their relationship, and how these effect the output form of the design element.

II.1) Content Choice and Organization within the Instructional System - The Syllabus.

All methods of language teaching involve the use of the target language. All methods involve decisions concerning the selection of content that is to be used within the teaching programme. Content concerns involve both subject matter and linguistic matter. In straight-forward terms one makes decisions as to what to talk about (subject matter) and how to talk about it (linguistic matter). ESP and Immersion courses, for example, are necessarily subject matter focused. Structurally-based courses are necessarily focused on linguistic matter. Methods typically differ in what they see as the relevant language and subject matter around which language instruction should be organized and in the principles they make use of in structuring and sequencing content units within a course. These involve

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* We acknowledge that some methodologies lack both teachers and teaching materials. A more general model of design would comprise 1) Knowledge considerations (Content) 2) Learner Considerations and 3) Instructional Considerations (Presentation). However, since most current methodologies assume the existence of teachers and teaching materials, these are specified in the present model. (See Rodgers, 1978).

issues of selection and gradation that ultimately shape the syllabus adopted in a language course as well as the instructional materials.

Within a design built on a structural theory of language, linguistic matter is identified with lexis and grammar and the syllabus is an arrangement of linguistic units determined by such criteria as learnability, frequency of use, linguistic complexity, etc. Within a design built on a notional theory of language, linguistic content is organized conceptually. The notional syllabus comprises a specification of the propositional and conceptual content of a language course, a selection of the linguistic means by which such notions are realized, and an organization of the product of such an analysis in terms of pedogogic priorities. Designs built on interactional theories of language and of language learning ostensibly use affective and interactive goals as organizing principles for the selection and structuring of content. The progression within the course might be rationalized in terms of developing patterns of relationship between learners and between teachers and learners. That a more traditional lexis/structure-based syllabus underlies some interactional methods is suggested by the fact that such methods are often defended in terms of student linguistic achievement rather than in terms of satisfying interactional relationships. Some methods claim rapid vocabulary learning as a selling point: others claim to deliver high levels of student language proficiency in a very short periods of time.

An alternative solution for developing a syllabus with an interactional design is illustrated by Community Language Learning (CLL). The emphasis in CLL is on having learners enter into a "creative affiliation" with other students and the teacher. To this end CLL offers neither linguistic nor subject matter specification. Learners select content for themselves, by choosing topics and meanings which they wish to talk about. These are then translated into the target language and used as the basis for interaction and second language development.

Conceptions of syllabus thus range from code-based to relationship-based. These conceptions lead to different solutions to the question of how the content of a course or textbook is to be chosen and organized.

It is possible to think of syllabus in a more general sense however. The syllabus is often implicit rather than explicit. Noss and Rodgers (1977) give as an example of an implied syllabus, the aims of the learning and qualifying processes by which one becomes legally eligible to drive an automobile. This "syllabus" typically consists of four components:

1. Demonstration of physical competence to drive (e.g. eye tests)
2. Demonstration of actual driving skills (e.g. parallel parking)
3. Demonstration of knowledge of local law (e.g. highway codes)
4. Demonstration of technical knowledge (e.g. braking distance)

A language learning syllabus may also be implied rather than specified. For example, parents typically act as the major sources for and organizers of their children's language input. Researchers in child language acquisition can infer a kind of parental syllabus of which the parents are themselves unaware. The structure of second language input for an immigrant, say, learning language and trade "on-the-job", may likewise be implicitly rather than explicitly structured.

The evaluation and testing procedures and teacher training proposals defined for a particular teaching method often suggest the implicit syllabus. A useful exercise which we use in teacher training is to have teacher-trainees examine textbooks, course designs, language learner protocols and testing instruments, attempting to reconstruct the rationale for the selection and organization of content that has been followed. In the absence of these resources, teacher-trainees read what Curran, Gattegno, Candlin and others have written about their own proposals for language teaching, and then attempt to abstract specific principles for the selection and gradation of language content, that is, the actual criteria for syllabus design as specified or implied. Often methods which are described in one manner, propose that teachers be trained and students tested in quite a different, sometimes incompatible, manner. So we see individualized instruction presented to would-be practioners via lecture-based in-servicing programms. We see communicative courses in which student outcomes are tested by discrete point grammar items.

Syllabus specification at the level of design is determined by answers to questions such as the following:

1) What are the objectives of the syllabus, how are objectives justified, and in what form are objectives given?
2) Who determines the syllabus and on what basis?
3) In what form is the linguistic content of the syllabus given?
4) Is subject content as well as linguistic content defined in the syllabus?
5) How specific is the definition of content?
6) What are the criteria for selection of linguistic and/or subject matter content?
7) How is content organized (graded) and what is the rationale for organization?
8) Who is expected to use the syllabus? (e.g. teachers, administrators, inspectors, textbook writers, examiners, etc.?)
9) Is training assumed for users of the syllabus?
10) How is the syllabus to be tested?

II. 2) Use of Content in the Instructional System - Learners, Teachers, and Materials.

The syllabus is the first component of the design level. The other components concern the use of the syllabus in the system by considering the nature of instructional materials based on the syllabus and specific roles assumed for learners and teachers. Language teaching

methods differ in the weighting they give to these variables and in the assumptions they make about them. A notional syllabus for example, is rightly termed a syllabus and not a method. Discussions of notional syllabuses (e.g. Wilkins, 1975) are directed to the organization of the linguistic content of language teaching. They say nothing about the roles of learners, teachers, or types of instructional materials. We might compare this to Breen and Candlin's discussions of functional/communicative language teaching, for example, where they have tried to relate the syllabus to specific roles for learners, teachers, and materials (Breen and Candlin: 1980). We return to this below. Individualized approaches to language learning have also redefined the roles of learner and teacher. This has lead to a reconsideration of kinds and uses of instructional materials. This, in turn, has led to new requirements for specification of linguistic content, that is, new kinds of syllabuses for use in individualized instruction.

In a fully developed teaching methodology, therefore, the level of design will relate specification of content (syllabus) to use of content by learners, teachers, and materials. Design considerations thus deal with assumptions about the content and the context for learning and teaching. We are concerned with how learners are expected to learn in the system, with how teachers are expected to teach, with respect to a particular set of instructional materials. We are concerned with the organization and management of learning and teaching as reflected in the ways that learners, teachers, and instructional materials interact. We will consider design considerations regarding

learners, teachers, and materials individually in the next three sections.

II.1.a) Learner Roles

The majority of the world's population is bi-lingual, and formal classroom teaching has contributed only insignificantly to this statistic. Thus, it is easy to find successful language learning situations which possess neither syllabus, teachers, or instructional materials. It is difficult to imagine a language learning situation without learners, however. Learners are the sine qua non of language learning.

What roles do learners play in the design of formal instructional systems? Many of the newer methodologies reflect a re-thinking of the learner's contribution to the learning process and acknowledgement that the design of an instructional system will be much influenced by the kinds of assumptions made about learners. Such assumptions arise as explicit or implicit responses to questions such as the following:

1. In what ways are learners considered alike and in what ways, unique?
2. What styles and strategies are learners assumed to possess? What styles and strategies are learners assumed to favor?
3. What degree of control does the learner have over the content of learning?
4. What degree of control does the learner have over how he learns?

5. To what degree does the learner influence the learning of other learners?
6. What patterns of learner grouping are defined, recommended or implied?
7. What types of interaction does the learner have with other participants in the learning process?
8. Is learning considered to be an individual achievement of learners, or is it viewed as a product of interpersonal interaction?
9. What types of monitoring and feedback does the learner have access to?

Responses to these questions enable us to see how learners are expected to learn and communicate within the learning environment. Learners can be expected to vary along a number of dimensions. For example

1) Students learn at different rates of speed
2) Students learn through different media (textbooks, films, programmed texts, games, physical activities, etc.)
3) Students are interested and competent in different kinds of educational content (language arts, mathematics, science, social studies, physical education, etc.)
4) Students learn through different styles of content/process organization (deductive, inductive, discovery, learning by doing, memorizational, etc.)

5) Students have differing abilities and preferences in modes of reporting their learning (paper and pencil tests, written reports, two-person conversations, oral reports, etc.)
6) Students respond differently to different forms of feedback, reinforcement, and reward (teacher praise, peer recognition, competitive grades, money, written certification, etc.)
7) Students perform differently in different group arrangements (working alone, peer-tutoring, small group activities, whole class instruction, theater presentation, etc.)
8) Students' learning efficiency varies differentially according to time of study (longer versus shorter study periods, morning versus afternoon, beginning of class period versus end of class period, first term versus last term, etc.)
9) Students' learning efficiency varies differentially according to place of study (in-class study, library study, laboratory study, home study, etc.)

Much of the criticism of code-based language teaching, i.e. audio-lingualism, came from the recognition of the very limited options available to learners in audio-lingual methodology. Learners were seen as stimulus-response devices whose learning was a direct product of mechanical practice. Newer methodologies customarily exhibit more concern for learner roles and learner variation. Counselling-Learning assigns distinctive roles to learners, in which Learners become 'counselors' to each other. Breen and Candlin describe the learner's role within a communicative methodology in the following terms. "The role of learner

as negotiator - between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning - emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interpendent way." And again "All learners will start with differing expectations about the actual learning, but each individual learner will be required to adapt and continually readapt in the process of relating himself to what is being learned. The knowledge will be redefined as the learner uncovers it, and in constructing and reconstructing his own curriculum, the learner may discover that earlier strategies in the use of his own abilities need to be replaced by other strategies. Thus all learners learn in their own ways and have to adopt the role of negotiator between themselves, their learning processes, and the gradually revealed objects of learning." (Breen and Candlin: 110)

Stevick magniloquently describes learner roles in the Silent Way. Thus spoke Stevick, "The Godlike characteristics of the learner are conspicuous in Gattegno's thinking; the ability to make infinite use of resources, and the ability to transcend one's animal nature by seeing oneself as seeing, seeing oneself as seeing that one sees, and so on. The mortality of the learner is equally clear in the urgency which Gattegno feels for efficiency in learning - for being sure "that we exchange time for experience" rather than wasting it. And the picture of the self creating itself even from the moment of conception, on physical as well as intellectual levels, certainly affirms the heroic aloneness of a self at the center of its own universe." (Stevick: 1980, 48).

Johnson and Paulston spell out learner roles in an individualized approach to language learning.

"(1) The learner is planner of his or her own learning programme, and thus ultimately assures responsibility for what he or she does in the classroom.

(2) The learner is monitor and evaluator of his or her own progress. This role allows for evaluation to be used as a basis for making future plans, and provides an essential source of motivation in learning.

(3) The learner is a member of a group. Learning involves interaction with others, this necessitates the opportunity for the learner to be an active participant in group activities.

(4) The learner is tutor of other learners. Students interact by tutoring each other.

(5) Learners learn with a variety of teachers. Learning to communicate with the teacher alone is insufficient; the learner will learn from others and from other teaching sources in an individualized approach." (Johnson and Paulston 1976: 46 - 39).

These statements of learner roles from various methodological proposals suggest the cruciality of relationship between learning theory within the approach level and learner roles within the design level of an instructional system.

b) Teacher Roles

Clearly linked to the roles defined for the learner, are the roles the teacher is expected to play in the instructional process. Teacher roles, too, are related both to assumptions about content and, at the level of approach, to particular views of language and language learning. Some instructional systems are totally dependent on the teacher as the source of knowledge and direction, others see the teacher's role as catalyst, consultant, diagnostician, guide, and model for learning; still others try to teacher-proof the instructional system by limiting teacher initiative and building instructional content and direction into texts and/or lesson plans. Teacher and learner roles define the type of interaction characteristic of classrooms in which a particular methodology is being used. Teacher roles are determined by answers to questions such as the following:

1. To what degree is learning thought to be under the control of the teacher?

2. To what degree does the teacher determine the specification and selection of linguistic content?

3. What is the primary function of the teacher, i.e. transmitter of knowledge, initiator of learning, tutor, counselor, practice director, learning examplar, etc.

4. What sort of interactional patterns are expected between teachers and learners?

5. Who can serve as a teacher? What qualifications and credentials are required?

6. Is the teacher's role expected to change or develop over time, throughout the course, etc.

7. How are individual teacher personalities seen as reflected in differing kinds and contexts of learning?

8. What are the extra-curricular (out-of-class) expectations for teachers?

The newer methodologies have given special attention to both teacher and learner roles, and have defined many new roles for the teacher. Consider, for example, this description of teacher and learner roles in the Counseling-learning approach. "The first stage is the "embryonic stage", where there is almost total dependence" on the teacher. Second is the self-assertion stage, as the student begins to show some independence and tries out the language. Next is the birth stage, when the client speaks independently, though imperfectly. It is now that he is most likely to resent what he feels is unnecessary assistance from the knower. Fourth comes the reversal stage, where the learner is fluent enough to take correction. She is in a position to exchange roles periodically with the knower, and as student-counselor, extends warmth and understanding to his or her mentor. In the fifth stage - the independent stage, interruptions are infrequent; they occur occasionally for correction but more often for enrichment and improvement of style." (Curran: 1972).

This is a very different conception of the teaching role from that we find, say, in a classical, audiolingual approach, where the teacher is regarded as the source of language and learning, where the teacher is regarded as conductor of the orchestra, whose prime goal is to keep the players in tune and time and without whom no music could be performed. Less "teacher conducted" learning, however, still may have very specific, and sometimes more demanding roles for the teacher. They often require thorough

training and methodological initiation on the teacher's part. Only the teacher who is thoroughly sure of his role and of the concomittant learner's role, will risk departure from the security of traditional textbook - oriented teaching.

For a functional (communicative) methodology, the roles of the teacher have been described in the following terms: "The teacher has two main roles: the first role is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. The latter role is closely related to the objectives of the first role and arises from it. These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher; first, as an organizer of resources and as a resource himself, second as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities.... A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner, with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and observed experience of the nature of learning, and organizational capacities." (Breen and Candlin: 1972).

Similarly, individualized approaches to learning define roles for the teacher which create specific patterns of interaction between the teachers and the learners in the classroom. "They are designed to gradually shift responsibility for learning from the teacher to the learner, thus the roles of the teacher necessarily become those of facilitating rather than controlling directing. In effect what we are asking of the teacher is, 'What can the teach do to facilitate learning, given that the learner desirably functions in certain ways.' Such a question is the same as the question 'How can the

teacher best teach?' but with the emphasis on the prior consideration of "What can the learner do"? The best teachers facilitate learning. They do not control it."

Johnson and Paulston quoted above, thus see the role of the teacher in an individualized approach to learning as being;

(1) Manager of the learning system. The teacher is responsible for setting up the instructional system that enables learners to play the various roles of planner-director, monitor, group member, tutor, and so on.

(2) Counsellor and consultant. In this role the teacher guides each student towards self-direction in learning.

(3) Instructor. The teacher presents new material and controls practice of it, but does so only when the material cannot as effectively be presented by another mode of instruction.

(4) Disciplinarian. Individual freedom within an individualized approach includes self-discipline and responsibility, and the teacher provides guidance for behaviour that provides restraints on individual freedom. (Johnson and Paulston. 1976).

We prefer to define the teaching role in a broader sense than the customary so as to include tutors, helpers, drill-moniters, 'knowers', consultants and the like. For example, The Autonomous Learning System designed by the C.R.A.P.E.L. staff at Nancy assumes a critical role for the learning 'helper'. A partial description of the helper's role states that the helper is "not a private tutor, may assist learners at any stage of the learning process, ... assuring methodological preparation ..... provide learners with opportunities to receive feedback in authentic situations, furnishing materials when possible....manifesting a sincere caring for

learners.... intermediary between learners.... keeping detailed notes on each learner.... peer matching, etc." (Henner- Stanchina and Riley, 1978).

In general, then, teaching roles manifest themselves in different patterns of classroom interaction with respect to;

1. The choice and presentation of language content.
2. The communication of meaning in the target language.
3. Language functions that emerge within the learning environment.
4. Degree of assistance, control, etc. given to learners in the expression of meaning.
5. Type of correction and monitoring.
6. Relative amount of knower-talk versus learner talk and the nature of this talk in linguistic terms. This will be seen in choice of procedures for turn-taking, topic nomination etc.

Teachers-in-training will benefit by examining texts, training manuals and methodological statements, and determining the precise teaching roles a method assigns or assumes and the consequent types of interaction and language such roles are likely to promote.

2.c) Role of Instructional Materials

The fourth design component is concerned with the role of instructional materials within the instructional system. What is specified with respect to content (the syllabus) and with respect to learner and teacher roles suggests the functions for materials within the system. The syllabus defines linguistic content in terms of language elements - structures, notions, functions, or whatever. It also specifies the selection and ordering of particular language items to be taught which represent the elements. Finally, it defines the goals for language learning. The

instructional materials in their turn, specify subject matter content (even where the syllabus may not). They also define or suggest the intensity of coverage for particular syllabus items - how much time, attention and detail are devoted to specific language items. Finally, instructional materials define (or imply) the day-to-day learning objectives which (should) collectively constitute the goals of the syllabus. Materials designed on the assumption that learning intiates from and is monitored by the teacher, must meet quite different requirements from those materials designed for student self-instruction or for peer tutoring. Some methods require the use of existing materials, found materials, and realia in new ways. Some methods assume teacher-proof materials that even poorly trained teachers with imperfect control of the target language can teach from. Some materials require specially trained teachers with near-native competence in the target language. Some materials are designed to enable learning to take place independently; that is, the materials are designed to replace the teacher. Some materials dictate certain interactional patterns in the classroom; others make interaction between teachers and learners difficult to achieve; still others are non-commital as regards classroom interaction.

In looking at the role of instructional materials within an instructional system we are concerned with answers to questions such as the following:

1. To what degree are materials teacher-centred and to what degree learner-centered?

2. Do materials emphasize the linguistic code, language functions, or interpersonal processes?

3. Are language elements isolated or integrated, presented atomistically or holistically?

4. What is the pattern of content introduction, practice, and review? Is it linear, stepped, cyclical, etc?

5. Do materials serve as the major source of language input or only as a minor component of language input?

6. What level of competence is expected of users - teachers and learners?

7. Are the materials 'teachable' and 'learnable'?

8. What classroom patterns and management systems do materials assume?

9. Do materials make specific assumptions about learners in terms of age, learning style, interests, background knowledge, etc?

10. What is the physical form of materials (text, tape, workbook, film, etc.)? Are materials attractive and engaging?

11. Do materials require special equipment of facilities (e.g. tape recorders, motion picture projectors, moveable chairs, black-out shades, etc.)?

12. To what extent will materials use be influenced by practical issues involving cost, expendability, durability, availability, cultural acceptability, etc?

A particular <u>design</u> for an instructional system will select or imply a particular set of roles for instructional materials, in support of the syllabus and the particular roles of teachers and learners. For example, the role of instructional materials within a functional communicative methodology might be specified in terms such as the following:

1. The materials will facilitate the communicative abilities of interpretation, expression and negotiation.

2. Materials will focus on understandable and relevant communication rather than on grammatical form.

3. Materials will command the learners' interests and involve their intelligence and creativity.

4. Materials will involve different types of text, and different media, which the participants can use to develop their competence through a variety of different activities and tasks.

By comparison the role of instructional materials within an individualized instructional system might include such specifications as these;

1. Materials will allow learners to progress at their own rates of learning.

2. Materials will cater for different styles of learning.

3. Materials will provide opportunities for independent study and use.

4. Materials will provide for student self evaluation and progress in learning.

Our previous discussions of the syllabus and of teacher and learner roles have suggested that these elements can be defined either narrowly or broadly. This is true as well of instructional materials. Narrowly, instructional materials typically mean textbooks. Broadly, instructional materials refer to language input ("proper intake") of whatever form.

In this broad sense, the lines between syllabus, teachers, learners, and instructional materials can become blurred. For example, the C.R.A.P.E. L. group (at Nancy) offer as input for their autonomous language learners any or all of the following:

1. Helper
2. Outside Help
3. Simulation
4. Task Matching
5. Peer Matching
6. Personal Materials
7. Free-lance Native Speakers
8. Cassettes
9. Written Texts
10. Sound Library

(Henner-Stanchina and Riley, 1978)

Trying to decide where the lines should be drawn between syllabus, learner roles, teacher roles, and roles for instructional materials becomes challenging, indeed, in such a system.

III. PROCEDURE

The last level of conceptualization and organization within an instructional system is what we refer to as procedure. Here we focus on the actual moment to moment techniques, practices, and activities that operate in teaching and learning a language. We are concerned with precisely what the textbook contains and what lesson plans propose from page to page, from unit to unit and with the types of activities, exercises, and practice materials that learners make use of in practicing and using the language. Procedural questions are of the following sort:

1. How are teaching/learning techniques and tactics described, arrayed, and assessed?

2. How are particular techniques and tactics determined to be appropriate for particular teachers and learners in particular learning environments?

3. What changes of thought and behavior for teachers and learners does a proposed new teaching tactic imply?

4. If we subscribe, say, to a communicative model of language or to a "humanistic" model of learning, what does this imply in terms of exercise types and classroom activities?

5. Ultimately, given theories of language and learning and specification of the content and roles for learners, teachers, and materials, what techniques and teaching/learning strategies can be created or adopted so as to provide coherence within a particular methodological framework?

Frequently in the history of language teaching we have been presented with attractive new theories of language and/or learning which failed to follow through to the level of procedure. An example can be found in Jakobovits', Foreign Language Learning. Jakobovits argues for replacement of a code-based structuralist theory of language, such as characterized audio-lingual methodology, with a transformational/cognitive theory of language and language learning. However, the book failed to provide any convincing examples of what this might lead to at the level of procedure. We require operational and procedural definitions and examples demonstrating the range of exercise types and language use activities that are considered acceptable manifestations of procedures as they are linked to specific

approaches and designs.

Differences in approach and design are likely to manifest themselves at the level of procedure in different types of activities and exercises within materials and classrooms, and in different uses or objectives for particular exercise types. Types of exercises and activities define practices such as drill, dialogue, dictation, cloze sentence completion, guided, semi-guided, free composition and conversation, role-play, games, simulations, etc. For particular recommended exercise types we require a specification of use and a description of precisely what is expected in terms of execution and outcome for each exercise type. For example, interactive games are often used in audio-lingual methodology for motivation and "taking a break" from pattern practice drills. In contemporary communicative methodology the same games may be used to introduce and/or provide practice for particular types of interactional exchanges.

The following requirements have been specified for exercise type and use within a particular version of a functional/communicative methodology.

Exercises must be;

1. Interactive. Oral exercises must allow students to change roles, both sending and receiving information. Students must be given the opportunity to both ask and answer questions.
2. Semantically unpredictable. Questions should be asked about things for which information is really required and or not known.

3. Purposive. Activities should have a purpose.
4. Contextualized. Language rules will be illustrated from their functions in real communicative settings.

Thus the materials make use of dialogues as one exercise type, but within these the learner has to provide his own content. The learner has to make decisions based on minimal clues, rather than merely memorize prepackaged language, since it is argued that purposeful communication involves encoding meaning, involves the learner in making choices about words, meanings and structures, rather than just mouthing content provided by others.

Another example of practices recommended on the basis of a particular approach is seen in criteria for evaluating drills, suggested in the individual approach advocated by Johnson and Paulston (1976). Drills are permitted but only if they pass a test of "responsiveness". "Drill practice may be identified in terms of the responsiveness that it reflects. Practice is most effective when it is conducted in a responsive environment in which what is said by one learner matters to another or other learners, because they may in turn have to respond to what is said. ...The most useful type of practice for developing communication skill is for the learner to say something and then have another learner respond entirely on the basis of what was said. It is apparent that in terms of responsiveness, the forms for practice easiest to provide in the classroom will be the request form and the question and answer form. A measure of effectiveness of practice will be the degree of responsiveness that a set of materials can incorporate into the practice of a sentence pattern." (p. 31).

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Crafting a successful instructional system rarely moves from approach to design to procedure. We are not now proposing it must do so. Successful methodologies can as well be developed linerly from the outside in or from the inside out. Successful teaching practices can be analysed in terms of the design and approach assumptions implicit in them. To the extent that design and approach can be specified one optimizes the possibility of finding or developing additional practices that are successful because they complement practices already successfully in use. For example the favored language teaching methodology in many parts of the world depends heavily on memorization and repetition of given linguistic sequences. There has been minimal thought given to approach and design issues underlying such memorization and repetition procedures. In the West, post-Chomskyian focus in linguist theory on the creativity of language in use has caused practices such as memorization and repetition to come under heavy attack. However, there is now emerging evidence that memorized chunks of Language may play a much larger part in language learning and use than has been previously assumed. Research has been reported regarding lexicalized sentences (Pawley and Syder, 1976), unanalyzed units (Huang and Hatch, 1978), prefabricated patterns (Hakuta, 1974) routines (Krashen and Scarcella, 1978) and conventionalized forms (Yorio, 1980) which begins to suggest the outline of a theory of language and language learning in which verbatum memorization and recall play a significant role. One can anticipate that the development of such theories will inform language learning design and procedural considerations as well. What may develop is a more coherent rational for,

and ultimately successful use of, memorization and repetition in second language instruction.

In summary, the approach to methodology outlined here relates theory to practice by focussing on assumptions, practices which follow from assumptions, as well as on the implications for syllabus theory, classroom organization, language and language learning theory, of successful language teaching. By seeing these different levels of conceptual and procedural organization as forming an interdependent system, the study of methodology in applied linguistics assumes a more significant role.

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